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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 Words) The working hypothesis of the present project is that hyaluronan (HA) promotes tumor growth by maintaining pericellular spaces that allows the diffusion of nutrients. To test this hypothesis, we have carried out the following specific aims. First, the cDNA for human HA synthase 3 (HAS3) was cloned and transfected into TSU (human prostate cancer) causing them to over-express HA. The resulting cells were found to grow faster under both <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> conditions, as compared to the control cells. In addition, histological examination of the tumors indicated that the HAS3 transfectants had increased intercellular space rich in HA and had greater number of blood vessels. Secondly, TSU cells were transfected with anti-sense vectors to HAS3, which caused them to express reduced levels of HA. These cells were found to grow slower than their control transfected counter-parts. These results supported our original working hypothesis that expression of HA promoted tumor cell growth. And thirdly, when tumor cells were transfected with expression vectors for hyaluronidase, they were found to increase their growth rate. We believe that this final result is due to the release of growth factors such as FGF from the extracellular matrix.				
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INTRODUCTION:

The working hypothesis of the present proposal is that hyaluronan (HA) associated with prostate tumor cells is responsible for maintaining a pericellular space between the nests of cells that is vital for the diffusion of nutrients. Without this pericellular space, tumor cells located only a short distance away from the blood supply will not receive an adequate supply of nutrients and will undergo necrosis. To test this working hypothesis, we have proposed the following specific aims:

1. We will examine the effects of increased HA production on tumor growth. For this we will transfect TSU cells (derived from human prostate cancer) with an expression vector for HA synthase, and the transfected clones as well as controls will be injected into nude mice. If our hypothesis is correct, then clones transfected with HA synthase will grow in the nude mice, while the control clones will not.
2. We will examine the effects of down regulating the synthesis of HA on the growth of prostate tumor cells. For this, we will examine the human prostate cell line TSU that produce large amounts of HA and readily grow in nude mice. These cells will be transfected with an antisense vector for HA synthase and then injected into nude mice along with control clones. If our hypothesis is correct then the transfected cells will grow at a slower rate and have less vascularization than the control cells. The transfected clones as well as control clones will be injected into nude mice. If our hypothesis is correct, then the hyaluronidase transfected cells should have a reduced growth rate as compared to control cells.
3. We will examine the effects of removing pericellular HA with hyaluronidase. The PC3 and TSU cell lines will be transfected with expression vectors for cell surface hyaluronidase and then injected into nude mice. Again, if our hypothesis is correct then the transfected cells should grow at a slower rate than the control cells.

BODY

Hyaluronan (HA) is a large, negatively-charged carbohydrate that is present in many extracellular matrices. A number of previous studies have suggested that the production of hyaluronan (HA) is associated with the metastatic behavior of tumor cells (1-11). Based on this and a variety of other evidence, we have proposed that pericellular HA can enhance tumor cell growth by maintaining channels in the extracellular matrix, through which nutrients can diffuse. To test this possibility, we have proposed to manipulate the production of HA by tumor cells and examine the effect on their behavior.

Thus far, we have completed the work on tasks 1 and 2. Task 1 involves the transfection of tumor cells with expression vectors for HAS3, one of the enzymes that is responsible for the synthesis of HA (12-19). We have accomplished most of the original goals of task 1 which have been accepted for publication by *Cancer Research* (see appendix). Task 2 consists of the down regulation of HA synthesis by transfection of tumor cells with anti-sense vectors to HAS. We have also completed most of these goals and are presently preparing a manuscript describing the results of this study. Task 3 consists of transfecting tumor cells with expression vectors for hyaluronidase, which should also result in the down regulation of HA. This study is still ongoing and the progress that we have made this far will be briefly described.

TASK 1. The Effects of Increased HA Expression on Tumor Growth: As indicated above, the goals of this task have for the most part been completed and the results will be published in *Cancer Research* (see appendix). The results being reported in this section are essentially identical to that in the published manuscript and what was reported in the previous the previous progress report.

To test our working hypothesis that HA promotes the growth of tumor cells, we have transfected a human prostate cancer cell line with an expression vector for HA synthase. Initially, we had proposed to the LNCaP cell line, however in preliminary studies we found that these cells do not readily grow in CAM of chicken embryos or in nude mice. For this reason, we have switched to the TSU cell line that readily grows in these two model systems. These cells were transfected with expression vectors containing cDNAs for mammalian HA synthase 3 that we isolated from a library of human brain cDNA.

1.1. Isolation of cDNA for HAS-3: The full length cDNA for HAS3 was cloned from a cDNA library of human brain using a probe consisting of the partial sequence of the gene. The open reading frame contained 1,659 base pairs corresponding to 553 amino acids as shown in Fig. 1. The HAS3 protein has a deduced molecular weight about 63 kDa and an isoelectric point of 8.70. The first 27 amino acid correspond to the signal peptide and there are six potential transmembrane domains. Between the first (amino acid 43 to 65) and second transmembrane domains (amino acid 384 to 402), there is a stretch of 317 amino acids, which may be the major functional region for polysaccharide synthase. The remaining 170 amino acids in the C terminal region (from amino acid 403 to 553) contain 4 transmembrane domains that can form two loops spanned in and out of membrane. There is a potential site for N-glycosylation site on amino acid 462, a glycosaminoglycan attachment site on position 464, and several phosphorylation sites for tyrosine kinase, casein kinase, protein kinase C and cAMP- and cGMP-dependent protein kinase. Comparison with related enzymes indicates that human HAS3 has about 53% identity to HAS1 (both human and mouse form), 67% identity to HAS2 and 96% identity to mouse HAS3. HAS3 also contains seven HA-binding motifs of B(X₇)B in which B is either R or K and X₇ contains no acidic residues and at least one basic amino acid (25). Similar domains are present in other HA-binding proteins such as RHAMM, CD44, hyaluronidase, link protein, aggrecan, human GHAP and TSG-6. These results are consistent with earlier studies of this and related genes (13-19).

1 ATG CCG GTG CAG CTG ACG ACA GCC CTG CGT GTG GTG GGC ACC AGC CTG TTT GCC CTG GCA 60
1 M P V Q L T T A A A Y V V G T S L F A L A 20

61 GTG CTG GGT GGC ATC CTG GCA GCC TAT GTG ACG GGC TAC CAG TTC ATC CAC ACG GAA AAG 120
21 V L G G T G A A A Y V T G Y Q F I H T E K 40

121 CAC TAC CTG TCC TTC GGC CTG TAC GGC GCC ATC CTG GGC CTG CAC CTG CTC ATT CAG AGC 180
41 H Y L S F G L Y G A I L G L H L L I Q S 60

181 CTT TTT GCC TTC CTG GAG CAC CGG CGC ATG CAA CGT GCC GGC CAG GCC CTG AAG CTG CCC 240
61 L F A F L E H R R M Q R A G Q A L K L P 80

241 TCC CCG CGG CGG GGC TCG GTG GCA CTG TGC ATT GCC GCA TAC CAG GAG GAC CCT GAC TAC 300
81 S P R R G S V A C L C I A A Y Q E D P D Y 100

301 TTG CGC AAG TGC CTG CGC TGG GCC CGC ATC TCC TTC CCT GAC CTC AAG GTG GTC ATG 360
101 L R K K C L R S A Q R I S F F D L K V V M 120

361 GTG GTG GAT GGC AAC CGC CAG GAG GAC GCC TAC ATG CTG GAC ATC TTC CAC GAG GTG CTG 420
121 V V D G N R Q E D A Y M L D I F H E V L 140

421 GGC GGC ACC GAG CAG GCC GGC TTC TTT GTG TGG CGC AGC AAC TTC CAT GAG GCA GCC GAG 480
141 G G T E Q A G F F V W R S N F H E A G E 160

481 GGT GAG ACG GAG GCC AGC CTG CAG GAG GGC ATG GAC CGT GTG CGG GAT GTG GTG CGG GCC 540
161 G E T G A A S C L CAG GAG GGC M D R V V R CGG GCC 180

541 AGC ACC TTC TCG TGC ATC ATG CAG AAG TGG GGA GGC AAG CGC GAG GTC ATG TAC ACG GCC 600
181 S T F S C I M Q K W G G K R E V M Y T A 200

601 TTC AAG GCC CTC GGC GAT TCG GTG GAC TAC ATC CAG GTG TGC GAC TCT GAC ACT GTG CTG 660
201 F K A L G D S V D Y I Q V C D S D T V L 220

661 GAT CCA GCC TGC ACC ATC GAG ATG CTT CGA GTC CTG GAG GAG GAT CCC CAA GTA GGG GGA 720
221 D P A C T I E M L R V L E E D P Q V G G 240

721 GTC GGG GGA GAT GTC CAG ATC CTC AAC AAG TAC GAC TCA TGG ATT TCC TTC CTG AGC AGC 780
241 V G Y H Q S V C A N K Y D S T G A T T C F L S S 260

781 GTG CGG TAC TGG ATG GCC TTC AAC GTG GAG CGG GCC TGC CAG TCC TAC TTT GGC TGT GTG 840
261 V R Y W M A F N V E R A C Q S Y F G C V 280

841 CAG TGT ATT AGT GGG CCC TTG GGC ATG TAC CGC AAC AGC CTC CTC CAG CAG TTC CTG GAG 900
281 Q C I S G P L G M Y R N S L L Q Q F L E 300

901 GAC TGG TAC CAT CAG AAG TTC CTA GGC AGC AAG TGC AGC TTC GGG GAT GAC CGG CAC CTC 960
301 D H Y H Q A F C G S A K G S F G G R H L L 320

961 ACC AAC CGA GTC CTG AGC CTT GGC TAC CGA ACT AAG TAT ACC GCG CGC TCC AAG TGC CTC 1020
321 T N R V L S L G Y R T K Y T A R S K C L 340

1021 ACA GAG ACC CCC ACT AAG TAC CTC CGG TGG CTC AAC CAG CAA ACC CGC TGG AGC AAG TCT 1080
341 T E T P T K Y L R W L N Q Q T R W S K S 360

1081 TAC TTC CGG GAG TGG CTC TAC AAC TCT CTG TGG TTC CAT AAG CAC CAC CTC TGG ATG ACC 1140
361 Y F R E W L Y N S L W F H K H H L W M T 380

1141 TAC GAG TCA GTG GTC ACG GGT TTC TTC CCC TTC TTC CTC ATT GCC ACG GTT ATA CAG CTT 1200
381 Y E S V V T G F F P F L I A T V I Q L 400

1201 TTC TAC CGG GGC CGC GTC AAC ATT CTC TTC CTG ACG GTG CAG CTG GTG GGC 1260
401 F Y R G R I W N L L F L L T V Q L V G 420

1261 ATT ATC AAG GCC ACC TAC GCC TGC TTC CTT CGG GGC AAT GCA GAG ATG ATC TTC ATG TCC 1320
421 I I K A T Y A C F L R G N A E M I F M S 440

1321 CTC TAC TCC CTC CTC TAT ATG TCC AGC CTT CTG CCG GCC AAG ATC TTT GCC ATT GCT ACC 1380
441 L Y S L L Y M S S L L P A K I F A I A T 460

1381 ATC AAC AAA TCT GGC TGG GGC ACC TCT GGC CGA AAA ACC ATT GTG GTG AAC TTC ATT GGC 1440
461 I N K S G W G T S S G R K T I V V N F I G 480

1441 CTC ATT CCT GTG TCC ATC TGG GTG GCA GTT CTC CTG GGA GGG CTG GCC TAC ACA GCT TAT 1500
481 L I P V S I W V A V L L G G L A Y T A Y 500

1501 TGC CAG GAC CTG TTC AGT GAG ACA GAG CTA GCC TTC CTT GTC TCT GGG GCT ATA CTG TAT 1560
501 C Q D L F S E T E L A F L V S G A I L Y 520

1561 GGC TGC TAC TGG GTG GCC CTC CTC ATG CTA TAT CTG GCC ATC ATC GCC CGG CGA TGT GGG 1620
521 G C Y W V A L L M L Y L A I I A R R C G 540

1621 AAG AAG CCG GAG CAG ACA AGC TTG GCT TTT GCT GAA GTG TGA 1662
541 K K P E Q T S L A F A E V * 553

Fig. 1. Structural characteristics of human HAS3. The complete nucleotide sequence and the deduced amino acid sequences of human HAS3 are shown.

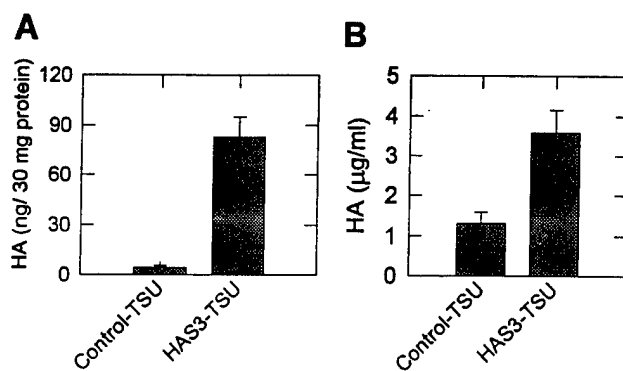


Fig. 2. Production of HA by vector control and HAS3 transfected TSU cells. Both control and HAS3 transfected cells were grown to confluence and then the cell layer and medium were analyzed for HA content using a modified enzyme linked assay. A. The amount of cell layer associated HA (normalized to the protein concentration) was higher in the HAS3TSU cells than in the control TSU cells. B. The amount of HA secreted into the medium by the HAS3-TSU cells was greater than that of the control-TSU cells. Note that most of the HA was secreted into the medium.

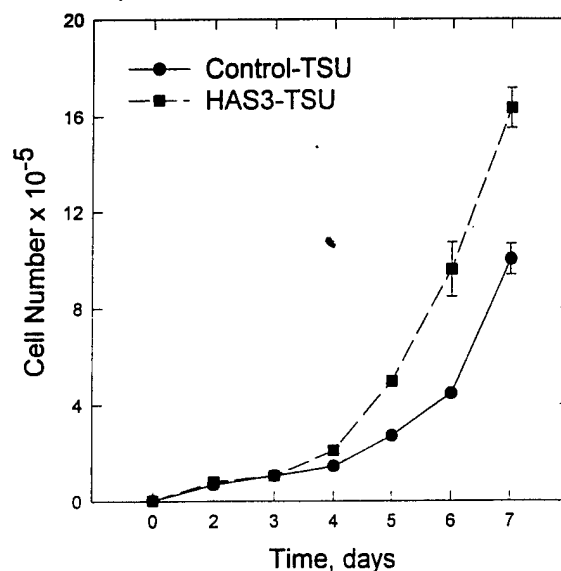


Fig. 3. The proliferation of control and HAS3 transfected TSU cells. The cell lines were cultured 24 well dishes in complete medium, that was changed ever other day. At the indicated time, a set of wells were harvested with a solution of EDTA in PBS and the cell numbers were determined with a Coulter counter. At low densities, no differences in the growth rates were apparent. However, at higher densities, the HAS3 transfected cells grew at a faster rate. Three replicates of this experiment gave similar results.

1.2. Expression of HA in TSU cells by transfection of human HAS3. To examine the role of HAS3 in tumor progression, the cloned cDNA was inserted into a mammalian expression vector (pcDNA3) under the control of a CMV promoter and transfected into TSU (human prostate cancer) cells. To avoid complications associated with clonal variations, all of the clones that survived in 1 mg/ml of G418 were pooled and expanded for experimental analysis throughout this study.

The production of HA by these cells was examined by a modified enzyme linked assay. As shown in Fig. 2, HAS3-TSU cells produced significantly greater amounts of medium and cell-associated HA than the control-TSU cells. These finding were confirmed by dot blotting of the conditioned medium onto nitrocellulose followed by peroxidase-linked HA staining (data not shown). It is important to note that the amount of secreted HA was significantly higher than that associated with the cell layer.

Cultures of the vector and HAS3 transfected TSU cells were then compared with respect to their HA staining pattern. At low densities, there was little obvious difference between the cell types, both of which expressed similar levels of HA that was present in the cytoplasm and on the cell surface (data not shown). Presumably this was due to the endogenous HA synthase present in the TSU cells that is active in the growing cells and masks the effect of the transfected HAS3. However, at high densities significant differences became apparent (Fig. 3). The control-TSU cells displayed a cobble-stone appearance indicative of contact inhibition of growth, and the production of HA was significantly down regulated (Fig. 3 A). In contrast, the HAS3-TSU cells appeared to have lost contact-inhibition of growth, forming numerous multi-layered clusters of cells, with which most of the HA staining was associated (Fig. 3 B). We believe that in these higher density cultures, the endogenous HA synthase is down-regulated due to contact inhibition of growth (26-29) and under these conditions the constitutive expression of the transfected HAS3 gene (controlled by the CMV promoter) becomes more prominent.

Taken together, the results of this section indicate that the transfection of HAS3 into TSU cells stimulates their expression of HA.

1.3. HAS3 Promotes Cell Growth at High Densities. We then compared the growth rates of the control and HAS3 transfected cells. For this, the cells were transferred to multi-well dishes, and at various times the cells were harvested and enumerated with a Coulter counter. Figure 4 shows that during the initial stages of the assay while the cells were still at low density, there was no obvious difference in the proliferation rates of the control and HAS3 transfected cells. However, beginning on day 4, when the cell densities were higher, the HAS3-TSU cells proliferated at a faster rate than the control cells. Similar results were obtained in three separate replications of this experiment. Thus, at high densities, the HAS3 transfected cells grow at a faster rate, presumably because they have lost part of their contact inhibition of growth and have the ability to form multi-layered clusters.

As indicated earlier, transfection of cells with HAS3 increase the levels of HA in both the medium and the cell-layer fractions, either of which could be responsible for the enhanced growth rate. To distinguish between these two fractions, we added varying concentrations of highly purified HA (2 to 200 µg/ml) to the culture medium of the transfected cells. At the end of 7 days, no obvious difference was apparent in the cell number of either cell type (data not shown). Thus, the presence of free HA by itself does not stimulate the cell growth under these conditions and suggests that increased levels of HA secreted into the medium does not act in an autocrine or paracrine fashion to stimulate the growth of these cells. A more likely explanation is that the cell-associated fraction of HA (cell surface or cytoplasmic) plays a more important role in regulating the growth of these cells at high density.

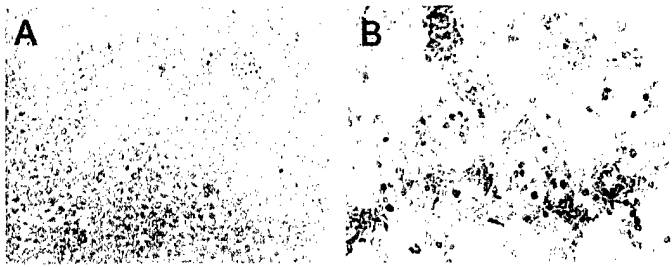


Fig. 4. Histochemical staining of control and HAS3-transfected TSU cells for HA using a biotinylated HA binding probe from cartilage. High density cultures were fixed, and incubated with b-HABP, followed by peroxidase labeled streptavidin and finally a substrate that gives rise to a red reaction product. A. A high density culture of control-TSU cells reveals a cobble stone appearance characteristic of cells exhibiting contact inhibition of growth. These cells have very little HA staining associated with them. B. A high density culture of HAS3-TSU cells reveals the presence of multilayered clusters of cells indicative of diminished contact inhibition of growth. Most of the HA staining was associated with these clusters.

Control-TSU



HAS3-TSU



Fig. 6. Growth of control and HAS3-TSU cells on the chicken CAM. Control and HAS3-transfected cells were placed on the CAMs of 10 day-old chicken embryos (1×10^6 cells/egg) and incubated at 37 °C. Five days later, the xenografts were removed and photographed: top panel, control-TSU cells; lower panel, HAS3-TSU cells.

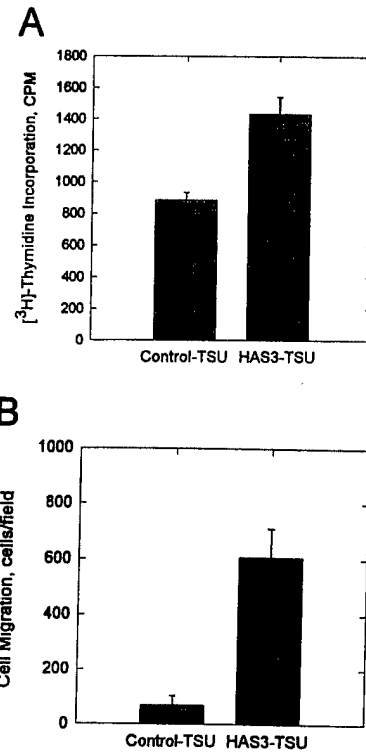


Fig. 5. Effects of conditioned medium on the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells. A. Cultures of ABAE cells were grown in the presence of conditioned from either control- or HAS3-TSU cells. After 36 hr [^3H]-thymidine was added to the medium for 8 hours, the cells were harvested and the amount of incorporated radioactivity was determined. The conditioned medium from the HAS3-TSU cells had a greater stimulatory effect on the proliferation of the ABAE cells than that of the control-TSU cells. B. To examine cell migration aliquots of ABAE cells were added to a 48 well Boyden chamber, allowed to attach to a Nucleopore membrane and then conditioned medium was added to the wells on the opposite side of the membrane. After 2 hours, the cells that had migrated across the filter were stained, and enumerated (10 random fields were counted). The conditioned medium from the HAS3-TSU cells stimulated the migration of the endothelial cells to a greater extent than that from the control-TSU cells.

1.4. Effect of Conditioned Media from HAS3-TSU on Endothelial cells: Since several studies have reported that under certain conditions, HA can modulate angiogenesis (30, 31) we examined the effects of conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells on the behavior of cultured endothelial (ABAE) cells. As shown in Fig. 5 A, conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells stimulated the proliferation of the ABAE cells by 66% as compared to that from control cells as judged by ^3H -TdR incorporation. Furthermore, the conditioned medium from the HAS3-TSU also stimulated the migration of ABAE cells through Nucleopore filters as compared to medium from that from control cells by more than 600% (Fig. 5 B). These results further suggest that the excess of HA produced by HAS3 in conditioned media from TSU cells could exert the stimulatory function on endothelium and is consistent with the early studies of West and coworkers (30, 31).

1.5. Growth of HAS3-TSU Cells on the CAM: Next, we compared the growth characteristics of the control and HAS3 transfected cells on the CAM of chicken eggs. In this experiment, equal numbers of the transfected TSU cells were placed on the CAMs of 10 day-old chicken embryos and allowed to grow for 5 days. As shown in Fig. 6, at the end of this period, the xenografts showed a striking divergence in their morphology. The control TSU cells formed rounded, nodular xenografts, with necrotic tissue in the center. In contrast, the HAS3-TSU cells gave rise to xenografts with a dispersed or spread-out morphology and without any obvious necrosis (Fig. 6). The HAS3-TSU xenografts were also 156 % larger than those of the control-TSU cells (Table 1). These results suggest that over-expression of HA enhances the tumor growth on CAM system.

1.6. HAS3 Promotes TSU Growth in Nude Mice. The results from chicken CAM were further tested with nude mice. In this system, transfected cells were injected subcutaneously into nude mice (male, 5 week-old). Again, the xenografts formed by the HAS3-TSU cells grew at a faster rate and appeared to be more vascularized than the control cells. After 3 weeks of growth, the HAS-3 xenografts were 3 times larger than those formed by the control cells (Fig. 7, Table 1). This suggests that HAS3 promotes the growth of TSU tumor cells in mice and is consistent with the results from the chicken CAM system.

However, when transfected cells were injected via tail vein into nude mice (5 mice/group), no lung metastasis was detected with either cell line. Thus, the over-expression of HA by itself is not sufficient to induce the metastatic behavior in these cells.

1.7. HAS3 Increases Intercellular Space and Angiogenesis in HAS3 Xenografts. Histological examination of the xenografts from nude mice revealed differences in their morphology (Fig. 8). While the xenografts varied from region to region, in general, the cells in the control-TSU xenografts were relatively homogeneous, compact and most of the HA appeared to be present in the cytoplasm of the cells (Fig. 8 A). In contrast, the HAS3-TSU cells formed small clusters or nests of cells that were surrounded by a matrix rich in HA (Fig. 8 B). Such structures were not observed in the control-TSU xenografts.

The extent of angiogenesis in these xenografts was examined histochemically staining for endothelial cells (anti-CD31). The HAS3-TSU xenografts demonstrated stronger staining for endothelial cells as compared to the control-TSU xenografts. The number of vessels in random 10 high-power fields in the samples of HAS3-TSU xenografts was 138% higher than that from control-TSU cells (169 in Control-TSU xenografts vs. 403 in the HAS3-TSU xenografts). This suggests that increased levels of HA can stimulate angiogenesis in these cell and this may, in part, account for the faster growth rate.

Table 1. The growth of transfected TSU cells in the chicken CAM and in the nude mouse. The TSU cells were grown on the CAM for 5 days were carefully removed and weighed. In nude mouse model system, the TSU cells were grown for 22 days and the volumes were determined.

	Control-TSU	Xenograft HAS3-TSU	% Increase
Chicken CAM (5 days)	59.1±5.6 mg	151.3±23.7 mg	156
Nude Mice (22 days)	0.063±0.016 cm ³	0.311±0.049 cm ³	394

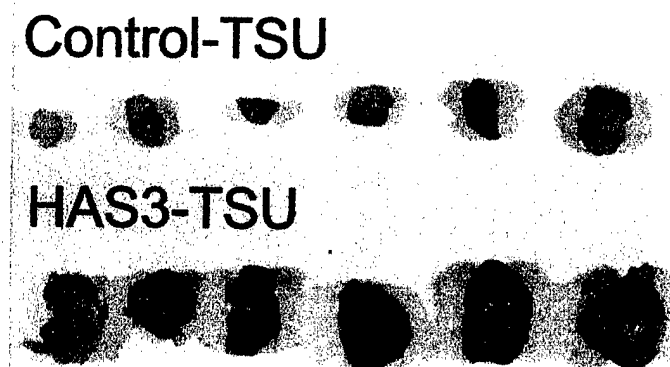


Fig. 7. Xenografts of control and HAS3 transfected TSU cells in nude mice. Nude mice were injected with 2×10^6 control- and HAS3-TSU cells. Twenty-two days later, the xenografts were harvested and photographed: top panel, control-TSU cell; lower panel, HAS3-TSU cells.

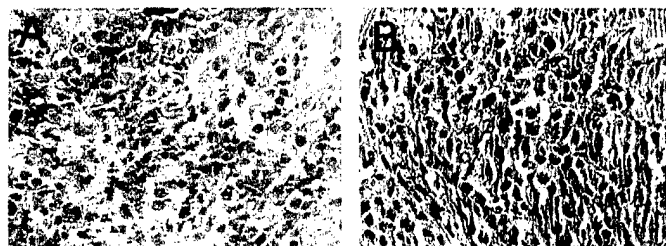


Fig. 8. The distribution of HA in xenografts formed by transfected TSU cells in nude mice. The xenografts were fixed in formalin, processed for histology and the resulting paraffin sections were stained for HA (red) using b-HABP and counter-stained with hematoxylin (blue). A. A representative section of a control-TSU xenograft shows that cells are compact and most of the HA staining is associated with the cytoplasm of the cells. B. A representative section of a HAS3-TSU xenograft reveals that cells are present in small clusters, surrounded by a stroma rich in HA. While the microscopic morphology of the xenografts varied from region to region, the HA-rich stroma was prevalent in the HAS3-TSU cells and absent from the control-TSU cells.

1.8. Interpretation of Results: In this study, we have characterized human HAS3 with regard to both its structure and its function in tumor progression. Based upon its deduced amino acid sequence, HAS3 shares significant homology with HAS1 and HAS2, and contains a signal peptide as well as six transmembrane regions strongly suggesting that it associated with the plasma membrane. Its enzymatic activity was demonstrated by the fact that transfection of TSU cells with expression vectors resulted in increased production of HA as determined by histochemical staining, dot blot analysis and quantitative ELISA. These findings are consistent with earlier studies of HAS proteins (12-19).

This study also suggests that stimulation of HA synthesis in TSU cells by transfecting them with HAS3 expression vectors enhanced their growth in both chicken embryos and in nude mice. Furthermore, this enhanced tumor growth appears to be due to two distinct mechanisms. The first mechanism involves a direct effect on the tumor cells themselves as suggested by the fact that in tissue culture, HAS3 transfected cells grew at a faster rate at high density. The second mechanism promoting tumor growth rate results from an increase in vascularization as reflected by the greater density of blood vessels present in xenografts of transfected cells in nude mice. Together, these two factors contribute to the increased tumor growth rate.

While HAS3 stimulates the production of both secreted and cell-associated HA, it is this latter fraction that appears to be most important in modulating cell growth in culture. This was suggested by the observation that addition of free HA to the cell medium did not result in increased proliferation that was seen in the HAS3 transfected cells. Thus, the most likely explanation is that it is the cell-associated pool of HA that is responsible for the biological effects on proliferation. This cell-associated fraction of HA consists of that present in the cytoplasmic as well as on the cell surface, either or both of which could be responsible for the increase in proliferation.

The HA on the surface of the cells can form a pericellular coat which can be directly visualized by its ability to exclude small particles such as erythrocytes (32). The size of this coat is due in part to small, microvilli-like projections that extend out from the surface of the cells to which the HA is attached (33). This pericellular coat could stimulate the growth of cells by several different mechanisms. One possible mechanism is that it disrupts intercellular junctions and thereby allows the cells to detach from the substrate so that they can divide and occupy new space (34-36). This would allow cells to overcome contact inhibition of growth which is characteristic of TSU cells and allow them to form multi-layers at high density cultures as we have observed. Another possible mechanism by which pericellular HA could stimulate proliferation is by maintaining spaces between cells that increases the flow of nutrients. Indeed, the larger extracellular space apparent in xenografts of HAS3 transfected cells in nude mice could serve as conduits through which nutrients could diffuse to support cells located some distance from the blood supply and thus facilitate their growth. Presumably, the

HA also appears to promote vascularization which is clearly important in regulating tumor growth (37-40). This was indicated by our observation that in xenografts of HAS3-TSU cells formed in nude mice, there was an increase in the density of blood vessels as compared to the control cells as determined by histochemical staining for endothelial cells (CD31). Part of this increased vascularization may be due to the pericellular spaces generated by the HA provides space which facilitates the migration and invasion of endothelial cells. In addition, the HA itself can stimulate the migration of endothelial cells. This was also indirectly suggested by experiments showing that conditioned media from the HAS3 transfected cells stimulated the growth and migration of cultured endothelial cells. This is consistent with earlier studies of

West and his associates have shown that oligosaccharide fragments of HA stimulate the formation of new blood vessels in the chorioallantoic membrane of chicken embryos (30, 31).

While the results of this suggest that over-expression of HAS3 in TSU prostate cancer cells promotes their tumorigenicity, there are some aspects of the present study that appear to contradict the results of other studies. For example, while we found that TSU transfectants grew faster in culture, Kosaki and coworkers found no such increase in the growth of HT1080 cells transfected with HAS2 under anchorage dependent conditions, although these cells did form bigger colonies in suspension culture (20). In addition, while we found increased stroma and angiogenesis in xenografts of HAS3-TSU cells in nude mice, Kosaki *et al.* found no such increase in HAS2 transfected HT1080 cells (20). We believe that these difference may due in part to the different target cells that were employed in these studies. The TSU cells employed in this study are of epithelial origin, while HT1080 cells are derived from a fibrosarcoma of connective tissue cells. This could account for the differences see with regard to growth behavior and the production of HA in the connective tissue, and their ability to stimulate angiogenesis. Alternatively, the differences could be attributed to the characteristics of the HA synthases that were used in the transfection, since they differ with respect to both their synthetic activity as well as the size of the HA that they produce (16-18).

Another apparent discrepancy was our observation that transfection of TSU cells with HAS3 did not appear to stimulate their ability to form lung metastases in nude mice. In contrast, we had previously reported that the levels of HA on cell surface of B16 cells was directly correlated with their metastatic behavior (3). Similarly, Itano *et al.* found that transfection of FM3A with HAS1 enhanced their metastatic properties (21). Again, we believe that these divergent results are due to the different cell types that are used as targets for transfection. In the case of B16 and FN3A, these cell lines originally possess the ability to undergo metastasis, and stimulation of HA synthesis in these cells enhance this innate property. In contrast, TSU cells appear to lack this ability (at least in nude mice) and increased HA synthesis, by itself, is not sufficient to promote metastatic properties. Clearly, the process of metastasis is a complex phenomenon involving the collaboration of many molecules. While the production of HA is one of the factors, it is not sufficient for the tumor metastasis.

In conclusion, the results of this study indicates that HA expression plays a role in tumor progression and are consistent with earlier studies demonstrating a correlation between HA levels and tumorigenicity. Furthermore, the HA may be acting through several different mechanisms, including: 1, a direct effect on the growth of the tumor cells themselves; 2, the formation of extracellular conduits through which nutrients can flow; and 3, the stimulation of blood vessel growth. However, these effects depend upon the particular cell type and the specific environment. Given the complexity of the effects of HA, it may be difficult to predict exactly how HA will influence the behavior of tumor cells. In any case, HA be more of a facilitator or promoter of tumor growth than an instigator.

TASK 2. The Effects of Decreased HA Expression on Tumor Growth: If our working hypothesis that HA promotes tumor cell growth is correct, then blockade of HA production should inhibit malignant progression. To test this possibility, we have proposed to transfect TSU prostate cancer cells with the vectors that drive the expression of anti-sense RNA for these genes. The anti-sense RNA binds specifically to the mRNAs for HA synthase, targets these molecules for degradation and inhibit the normal translation of HA synthase. The resultant will then be examined for phenotype changes with regard to growth rate in tissue culture, and in animal models (chicken CAN and nude mice).

2.1. Transfection of Tumor Cells with Vectors for the Antisense of HA Synthase: Anti-sense sequences for HAS3 were ligated into the pcDNA3 vector (Invitrogen) and amplified in bacteria. Both anti-sense and control plasmids were isolated and used to transfect TSU cells using the Ca precipitation method. Transfected clones were selected by their ability to survive in 1 mg/ml of G418. To avoid complications associated with clonal variations, all of the surviving clones were pooled and expanded for experimental analysis throughout this study. It was our hope that since the anti-sense sequence to HAS3 was very similar to that of HAS1 and 2, that all three forms of HA synthase would be down-regulated.

2.2. Characterization of Transfected Cells: In initial experiments, the transfected cells were tested for the expression of HA. To do this, we collected the conditioned media from the cells and extracted the cell layer with detergents. These samples were then assayed for HA using a modified ELISA assay using a biotinylated HA-binding probe isolated from cartilage (b-HABP). As shown in Fig. 9 A, the TSU cells transfected with the anti-sense HAS3 vector had approximately one third the amount of HA in the cell layer as that in their vector-transfected counterpart. These cells also secreted less HA into the medium (Fig. 9. B), but the magnitude of this difference was not as great as with the cell layer. This may be a reflection of the fact that HAS3 produces a greater proportion of cell-associated than secreted HA as compared to the other HA synthases. Thus, if HAS3 is preferentially down-regulated then the cell-associated HA should be expected to show a greater response.

The down regulation of cell-associated HA was also apparent when the cells were stained histochemically for HA with b-HABP. Both vector and anti-sense transfected TSU cells were cultured at low density, fixed briefly in formaldehyde and then stained for HA using b-HABP (red color) and counter-stained with hematoxylin (blue). Figure 10 A and B shows that the anti-sense transfected cells stained less intensely than the vector (control) cells, suggesting that they had less HA. These results were consistent with the ELISA assays described above.

2.3. The Growth Rates of Transfected TSU Cells In Vitro: Next, we examine the growth rates of the control and anti-sense transfectants in tissue culture. For this equivalent numbers of cells were subcultured into 24 well plates and at different time points thereafter, wells were harvested with a solution of EDTA and the cell number was determined with a Coulter Counter. Figure 11 shows that the anti-sense HAS3 transfected TSU cells grew much slower than their control counterparts (vector transfected). This difference was unexpected, and at present we do not know why the down regulation of HAS3 has such a dramatic effect on the growth rates of these cells. This observation deserves further investigation.

2.4. Examine the Effect of Anti-sense HAS3 on Tumor Growth In Vivo: In this set of experiments, we examine the growth of the control and anti-sense HAS3 TSU cells in animal models consisting of both the chicken embryo CAM and nude mice. In the first experimental model, samples containing approximately 2×10^6 cells were placed on the CAM of 10 day old chicken embryos and allowed to grow for 5 days. At the end of this time, the tumor xenografts were removed and weighed. Figure 12 shows that there was no

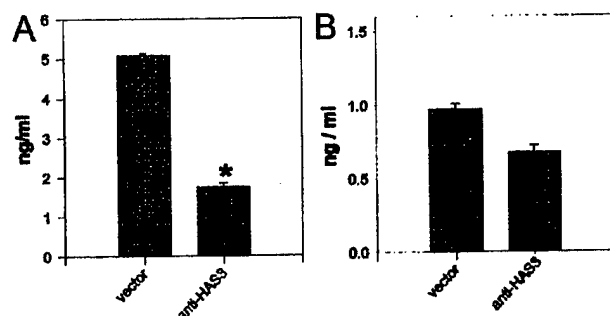


Fig. 9. The production of HA by control and anti-HAS3 transfected TSU cells. (A) Detergent lysates of the cells were assayed for HA using an ELISA employing b-HABP from cartilage. The cells transfected with the vector alone (control) had greater levels of HA than those transfected with anti-HAS3. (B) The conditioned medium from these cells show a similar pattern but the difference was not as great.

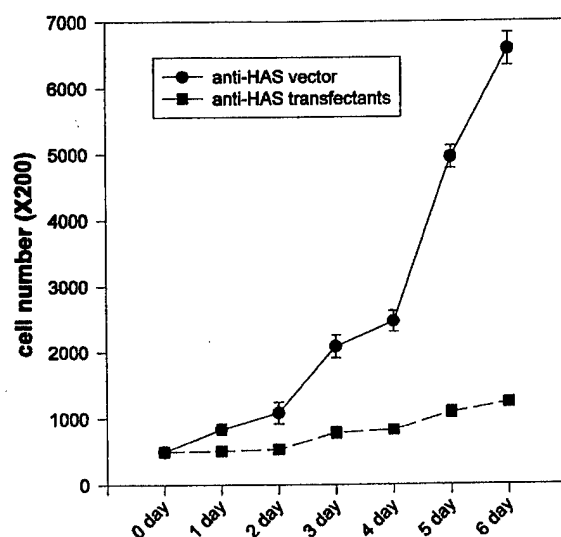


Fig. 11. The growth rates of vector and anti-HAS3 transfected TSU cells in tissue culture. Cells were subcultured at equal densities, and at the indicated times thereafter, harvested with EDTA and the cell number was determined with a Coulter Counter. The TSU transfected with the anti-HAS3 grew much slower than their control counterparts.



Fig. 10. Histochemical staining of transfected TSU cells in tissue culture. Both the control (A) and anti-HAS3 (B) transfected cells were cultured at low density, fixed and stained with b-HABP from cartilage for HA (red color) and counter-stained with hematoxylin (blue color). The cytoplasm of the control cells stained more intensely for HA than did those transfected with anti-sense for HAS3.

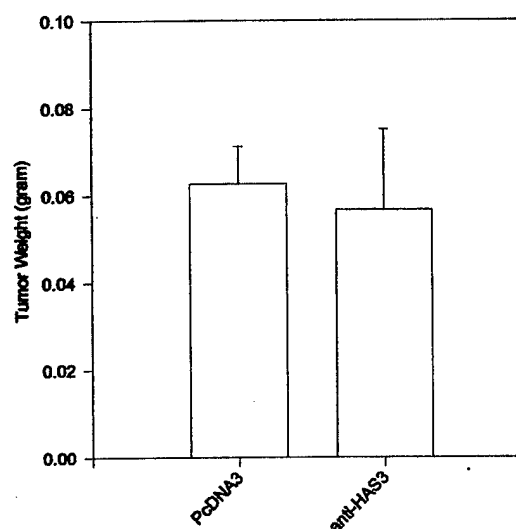


Fig. 12. The growth of vector and anti-HAS3 TSU cell on the CAM of chicken embryos. Equal numbers of control and anti-HAS3 cells were applied to the CAMs of 10 day old chicken embryos and harvested 5 days later. The final weights of the xenografts show that there was not a significant difference between the cells under these conditions.

obvious difference in the weights of the tumor xenografts at the end of the experiment. Thus, in the chicken CAM model system, the down regulation of HAS3 did not appear to influence the growth rate of the cells. However, it should be mentioned that the CAM model system is not representative of the growth conditions that tumor cells normally encounter *in vivo*. For example, the CAM is already highly vascularized and the cells are exposed to the air which allows for oxygen to diffuse into the tumors.

In the final experiment, we examined the growth of these cells in the nude mouse, which more closely approximates the conditions that tumor cells encounter *in vivo*. For these experiments, 5×10^5 control and anti-sense TSU cells were injected sq. into nude mice, and the size of the resulting xenografts was followed by measurement with calipers. Figure 13 shows that under these condition, the anti-sense HAS3 cells grew much slower than their control counterparts. Thus, under the conditions that tumor cells would encounter *in vivo*, the down-regulation of HAS3 cause a reduction in tumor growth rate. These results are consistent with our working hypothesis that HA synthesis promotes tumor progression.

2.5. Interpretation of Results: On the whole, the results of these experiments tended to support our hypothesis that HA synthesis promotes tumor growth. In particular, the growth of these cells in the nude mouse showed that down regulation of HAS3 resulted in a much slower growth rate. However, other aspects of these studies were not completely consistent. For example, there was no obvious difference in the growth of these cells on the CAM, which may be due to the radically different conditions between these two assay systems. In addition, the fact that there was a major difference in the growth of these cells in tissue culture suggests that the down-regulation of HAS3 may be influencing other aspects of cell physiology in addition to the production of HA in the extracellular matrix. The nature of these effects should be addressed.

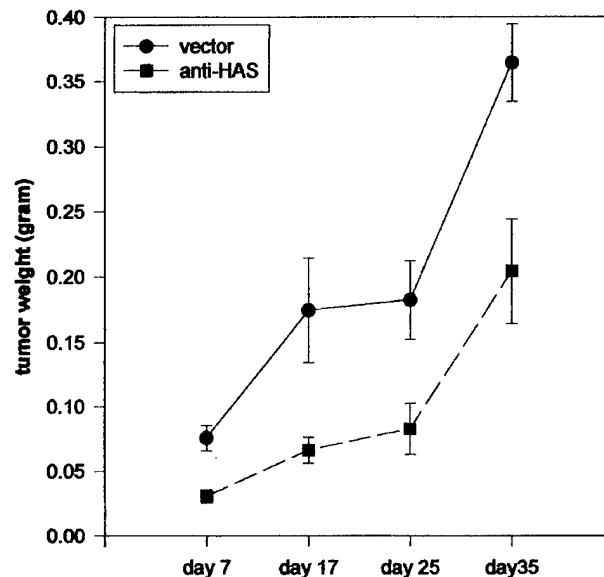


Fig. 13. The growth rates of control and anti-HAS3 transfected TSU cells in nude mice. Approximately 2×10^6 transfected TSU cells were injected subcutaneously into nude mice and the resulting xenografts were measured at the indicated time points. The control TSU cells grew much faster than those transfected with the anti-HAS3 vector.

TASK 3. The Effect of Hyaluronidase on the Growth of Tumor Cells: In this task, we will use a different approach to reduce the levels of pericellular HA associated with tumor cells. For this, prostate cancer cells have been transfected with an expression vector for hyaluronidase (sperm-type and membrane-bound, PH-20) which will degrade the HA so that it will not accumulate in the pericellular matrix. Since this study is ongoing, our progress will only be briefly summarized here.

3.1. Preparation of the pCHisC-PH-20 expression vector: The pCHisC-PH-20 was amplified in bacteria and the purified vector will be transfected into TSU cells using the calcium precipitation method. The transfected clones were selected and expanded for further characterization. These cells were found to have reduced levels of HA as compared to control cells.

3.3. Assessment of Tumor Growth Rates and Angiogenesis: Samples of the transfected cell lines were injected sc. into nude mice and the resulting xenografts were found to be smaller than those from control transfected cells. Again, this is consistent with our working hypothesis. In the immediate future, these xenografts will be examined for the extent of angiogenesis.

ACRONYMS AND SYMBOL DEFINITIONS

b-HABP	Biotinylated proteoglycan - used as a specific staining probe for hyaluronan.
CAM	Chorioallantoic membrane
CD44	Cluster of determination (differentiation) - same as the hyaluronan receptor or binding site.
CMF-PBS	Calcium and magnesium free phosphate buffered saline.
DMEM	Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium
HA	Hyaluronan.
HAase	Hyaluronidase (either testicular or <i>Streptomyces</i>)
HAS3	Hyaluronan synthase, isoform 3
mAb	Monoclonal antibody.
HABP	A complex of a trypsin fragment of cartilage proteoglycan and link protein that binds to HA with high affinity and specificity.

KEY RESEARCH ACCOMPLISHMENTS:

- The cDNA for human HAS3 was cloned and characterized. The open reading frame consisted of 1,659 base pairs coding for 553 amino acids with a deduced molecular weight about 63 kDa and isoelectric pH of 8.70. The sequence of human HAS3 displayed a 53% identity to HAS1 and 67% identity to HAS2. It also contained a signal peptide and 6 potential transmembrane domains, suggesting that it is associated with the plasma membrane.
- To evaluate the physiological role of human HAS3, expression vectors for this protein were transfected into TSU cells (a prostate cancer cell line). The over-expression of HA in the transfected cells was confirmed by histochemical staining, dot blot analysis and ELISA.
- The HAS3-TSU cells were found to differ from their control transfected counterparts with respect to the following: 1) they grew at a faster rate in high (but not low) density cultures; 2) conditioned media from these cells stimulated the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells; 3) when placed on the chorioallantoic membrane of chicken embryos, these cells formed large, dispersed xenografts while the control transfectants formed compact masses; and 4) when injected subcutaneously into nude mice, the xenografts formed by HAS3 transfectants were bigger than those formed by control transfectants.
- Histological examination of these xenografts indicated that the HAS3 transfectants had increased intercellular space rich in HA, and a greater number of blood vessels.
- The HAS3 transfected TSU cells did not show an increase in their metastatic properties as judged by their ability to form lung metastases following i.v. injection.
- Transfection of TSU cells with anti-sense sequences to HAS3 results in a down regulation of HA production.
- The anti-sense HAS3 TSU cells grew slower in tissue culture and in nude mice than their control counterparts. On the other hand there was no apparent difference in the growth rate of the transfected cells when grown on the CAM of chicken embryos. While the results are not entirely consistent, on the whole they tend to support the working hypothesis that HA promotes tumor progression.

REPORTABLE OUTCOMES:

Lu, N., Gao, F., Han, H., Xu, X., Underhill, C. B. and Zhang, L. Hyaluronan Synthase 3 Overexpression Promotes the Growth of TSU Prostate Cancer Cells. *Cancer Research* in press.

CONCLUSION AND SIGNIFICANCE:

- These results suggest that the HAS3-induced over-expression of HA promotes tumorigenicity by several different mechanisms, including: 1) a direct effect on the growth of the tumor cells, 2) the formation of extracellular conduits through which nutrients can flow, and 3) the stimulation of blood vessel growth. This is consistent with our original working hypothesis that an extracellular matrix of HA enhances tumor cell growth.
- The down-regulation of HA expression by anti-sense to HAS3 tends to decrease the growth rate of tumor cells in tissue culture and in nude mice. These results are also consistent with our working hypothesis that HA is involved in tumor progression.

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Hyaluronan Synthase 3 Overexpression Promotes the Growth of TSU Prostate Cancer Cells¹

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ABSTRACT

Hyaluronan synthase 3 (HAS3) is responsible for the production of both secreted and cell-associated forms of hyaluronan and is the most active of the three isoforms of this enzyme in adults. In this study, the cDNA for human HAS3 was cloned and characterized. The open reading frame consisted of 1659 bp coding for 553 amino acids with a deduced molecular weight of about 63,000 and isoelectric pI of 8.70. The sequence of human HAS3 displayed a 53% identity to HAS1 and a 67% identity to HAS2. It also contained a signal peptide and six potential transmembrane domains, suggesting that it was associated with the plasma membrane. To evaluate the physiological role of human HAS3, expression vectors for this protein were transfected into TSU cells (a prostate cancer cell line), and the phenotypic changes in these cells were examined. The enhanced expression of hyaluronan in the transfected cells was demonstrated by dot blot analysis and ELISA. These cells were found to differ from their vector-transfected counterparts with respect to the following: (a) they grew at a faster rate in high (but not low) density cultures; (b) conditioned media from these cells stimulated the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells; (c) when placed on the chorioallantoic membrane of chicken embryos, these cells formed large, dispersed xenografts, whereas the control transfectants formed compact masses; and (d) when injected s.c. into nude mice, the xenografts formed by HAS3 transfectants were bigger than those formed by control transfectants. Histological examination of these xenografts revealed the presence of extracellular hyaluronan that could act as conduits for the diffusion of nutrients. In addition, they had a greater number of blood vessels. However, the HAS3-transfected TSU cells did not display increased metastatic properties as judged by their ability to form lung masses after i.v. injection. These results suggested that the HAS3-induced overexpression of hyaluronan enhanced tumor cell growth, extracellular matrix deposition, and angiogenesis but was not sufficient to induce metastatic behavior in TSU cells.

INTRODUCTION

A number of studies have suggested that the production of hyaluronan is associated with the metastatic behavior of tumor cells (1–11); e.g., Toole *et al.* (1) have shown that invasive tumors formed by V2 carcinoma cells in rabbits have higher concentrations of hyaluronan than noninvasive tumors formed by these same cells in nude mice. Similarly, Kimata *et al.* (2) found that a strain of mouse mammary carcinoma cells with a high metastatic potential produced significantly greater amounts of hyaluronan than a similar strain with a low metastatic potential. In a previous study (3), we found that the amount of hyaluronan on the surfaces of mouse B16 melanoma cells was directly correlated with their ability to form lung metastases. Finally, increased levels of hyaluronan production have been correlated with a variety of metastatic tumors, including carcinomas of the breast, lung,

liver, pancreas, and kidney (Wilms' tumor) (4–9). Indeed, in the case of Wilms' tumor (10) and mesotheliomas (11), the increased levels of hyaluronan in the serum of these patients has been regarded as a diagnostic marker for the clinical course of these conditions. Thus, there appears to be a correlation between hyaluronan production and metastatic behavior.

At present, three closely related isoforms for HAS³ have been described, termed HAS1, 2, and 3, each of which appears to be associated with the plasma membrane (12–19). They have a predicted molecular mass of approximately 63 kDa, and transfection of cells with expression vectors for each of these isoforms can induce the synthesis of hyaluronan and the formation of a pericellular coat. However, the three isoforms are distinguished from each other with respect to: (a) their expression pattern during embryonic development and distribution in adult tissues; (b) the phenotype of knockout mutants in mice in which loss of HAS2 resulted in an embryonic lethality, whereas ones deficient in HAS1 and HAS3 were viable and had no obvious phenotype; (c) the rate at which they carry out hyaluronan synthesis, with HAS3 being more active than either HAS1 and HAS2; and (d) the size of the hyaluronan produced by the different isoforms with HAS3 being somewhat smaller than that produced by either HAS1 or 2 (17, 18).

Several recent studies have shown that transfection of tumor cells with expression vectors for hyaluronan synthase alters their behavior; e.g., Kosaki *et al.* (20) reported that the transfection of human fibrosarcoma cells with HAS2 enhanced both anchorage-independent growth and tumorigenicity. In addition, Itano *et al.* (21) have found that clones of mouse mammary cancer cells that had low levels of hyaluronan synthesis demonstrated decreased metastatic properties, which could be restored if the cells were transfected with an expression vector for HAS1.

In this study, we have cloned and characterized the full-length cDNA for human HAS3 and examined its potential role in tumor progression. An expression vector carrying HAS3 was transfected into TSU prostate cancer cells, and alterations in the phenotype of the resulting cells were examined. We found that the HAS3-induced overexpression of hyaluronan enhanced the rate of tumor growth both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Xenografts of the HAS3-transfected cells grew faster and larger, demonstrated a hyaluronan-rich stroma and increased vascularization. However, transfection with HAS3 did not shift the TSU cells to a more metastatic phenotype, suggesting that hyaluronan alone is not sufficient for metastasis in the case of TSU cells.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Lines. The TSU human prostate cancer cell line was obtained from the Tumor Cell Line Bank of the Lombardi Cancer Center (Georgetown University, Washington DC) and maintained in 10% calf serum, 90% DMEM. ABAE cells were kindly provided by Dr. Luyuan Li (Lombardi Cancer Center, Washington DC) and were cultured in 10% fetal bovine serum, 90% DMEM containing 2 ng/ml basic fibroblast growth factor.

³ The abbreviations used are: HAS, hyaluronan synthase; ABAE, adult bovine aorta endothelial cells; b-HABP, biotinylated hyaluronan-binding protein from cartilage; RT-PCR, reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction.

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*Note both "isoelectric pI" and "pI" are acceptable

1	NRQODAPKPTPAARRCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS1	
1	NRQDMPKPFSEAAARCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS1 m	
1	NRQDMPKPFSEAAARCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS2	
1	NRQDMPKPFSEAAARCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS2 m	
1	NRQDMPKPFSEAAARCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS3	
1	NRQDMPKPFSEAAARCSGLARRRLTIAFALLIQLMTWAXAAGVPLASDRYELAFGLYGHAS3 m	
61	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS1	
60	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS1 m	
51	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS2	
51	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS2 m	
50	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS3	
50	AFSAHLMAOSLFAYLEHRRVAAAAA---G-PLDAAT-ARSVALTISAYQEDFAVLFQHAS3 m	
114	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS1	
118	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS1 m	
102	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS2	
102	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS2 m	
104	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS3	
105	CLASARALDSEFRARRVILMVVDGMRADLYMVDMREVFAD-ELPATYVVDGNYHOPWEPHAS3 m	
173	A-AAGAVGAGAYREVEADPPGLAVFALVTRRRVCVVAORWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS1	
177	A-AAGAVGAGAYREVEADPPGLAVFALVTRRRVCVVAORWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS1 m	
156	-----GPGTDESSEHSSQH---VTQLVLSNKSICIMOKWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS2	
156	-----GPGTDESSEHSSQH---VTQLVLSNKSICIMOKWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS2 m	
159	-----GPGTDESSEHSSQH---VTQLVLSNKSICIMOKWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS3	
160	-----GPGTDESSEHSSQH---VTQLVLSNKSICIMOKWGGKREVMYTAFFKALGDSVDHAS3 m	
232	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS1	
237	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS1 m	
207	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS2	
207	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS2 m	
210	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS3	
211	YVVOVCDSDTRLDFMALLLVLRLDEDFRVGAVGGDVRLNPLDSVVSFLSSLRVYVAFNVHAS3 m	
292	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS1	
297	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS1 m	
267	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS2	
267	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS2 m	
270	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS3	
271	ERACOSYFHCWSCISGFLGLYRNLLLOOFLEAWYNOKFLGTHCTFGDDRHLTNRMLSMGYHAS3 m	
352	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS1	
357	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS1 m	
327	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS2	
327	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS2 m	
330	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS3	
331	ATKYTARSRCYSETPSFLRWLSOOTRNSKSYFREWLYNALWVHRRHAWNTYEAVUSGLFHAS3 m	
412	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS1	
417	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS1 m	
387	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS2	
387	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS2 m	
390	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS3	
391	PFVFAATVLRFLYAGRPVALWVLLCVGVALLAKAAFAAWLRGCLRMVLLSLYAPLYVCGHAS3 m	
472	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS1	
477	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS1 m	
447	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS2	
447	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS2 m	
450	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS3	
451	LLPAKFLLVTHMOGSGWGTSGRKKLAAYVVPVLPALWALLLLGGLVSVAAHEARDWGHAS3 m	
532	PSRAAEAYHLAAGAGAVVGVVSMVLTLLVWVVRRLC---PRRTGGYRQ---HAS1	
537	PSRAAEAYHLAAGAGAVVGVVSMVLTLLVWVVRRLC---PRRTGGYRQ---HAS1 m	
507	SKQTV---LIVGTLIVACVVMVLTLLVWVVRRLC---PRRTGGYRQ---HAS2	
507	SKQTV---LIVGTLIVACVVMVLTLLVWVVRRLC---PRRTGGYRQ---HAS2 m	
508	TELAF---LVSGAILVGCYVVALMLYLAIAPRCG---KFEQYELFSEV---HAS3	
509	TELAF---LVSGAILVGCYVVALMLYLAIAPRCG---KFEQYELFSEV---HAS3 m	

Fig. 2. Comparison of the human HAS3 with other members of the HAS family. Human HAS3 is about 53% identical to HAS1, 67% identical to HAS2 of both human and mouse (m), and 96% identical to mouse HAS3.

chicken embryos (15 eggs/group) and incubated at 37°C for 5 days. The tumor masses that grew on the chorioallantoic membranes were removed, photographed, and weighed. In the second assay system, the transfected cells were injected s.c. into 5-week-old male nude mice (2 × 10⁶ cells/site; five mice/group), and the size of the xenografts was measured twice a week. At the end of 3 weeks, the mice were sacrificed, and the xenografts were photographed, weighed, and then fixed with 3.7% formaldehyde or frozen in liquid nitrogen for immunohistochemical staining.

To examine experimental metastasis, 5 × 10⁵ vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells were injected into the tail veins of 5-week-old nude mice (five mice/group). Three weeks later, the mice were sacrificed, and the lungs were examined under a dissecting microscope for metastases.

Histological Staining. To stain cultured cells for hyaluronan, the transfected cells were seeded into an 8-well chamber slide (Nunc, Naperville, IL) and allowed to grow to confluence. After fixation in 3.7% formaldehyde for 5 min, the cells were washed and stained with 10 µg/ml b-HABP in 10% calf serum, 90% PBS, followed by 4 µg/ml of peroxidase-conjugated streptavidin and finally a substrate consisting of 3-amino-9-ethyl-carbazole and H₂O₂ that gives a dark red reaction product (23).

To stain xenografts for hyaluronan, the tissue was fixed with formaldehyde, embedded in paraffin, and cut into 5-µm thick sections. After the removal of the paraffin, the sections were processed as described above. After the immunoperoxidase reaction step, the sections were counterstained with Mayer's hematoxylin and then preserved with Crystal/Mount (Biomed, Foster City, CA).

To stain for endothelial cells, samples of the xenografts were rapidly frozen, cut into 10-µm thick sections, fixed in acetone, and air-dried. The sections were incubated sequentially with: (a) a 1:30 dilution of rat antimouse CD31 (PharMingen, San Diego, CA) in 10% calf serum, 90% PBS for 1 h; (b) avidin-biotin complex method reagents for rat IgG (ABC kits; Biomed); (c) a peroxidase substrate consisting of H₂O₂ and 3-amino-9-ethyl-carbazole; and (d) counter-stained with Mayer's hematoxylin. The numbers of immunopositive spots corresponding to small blood vessels were counted in 10³ random fields of three samples from each group.

Statistical Analysis. The mean and SE were calculated from the raw data and then subjected to Student's *t* test. The *P* < 0.05 was regarded as statistically significance.

RESULTS

Cloning and Characterization of Human HAS3. The full-length cDNA for HAS3 was cloned from a cDNA library of human brain using a probe consisting of a known partial sequence of the gene. The open reading frame contained 1659 bp coding for 553 amino acids and is shown in Fig. 1. The HAS3 protein had a deduced molecular weight of about 63,000 and a pI of 8.70. The first 27 amino acids represented the signal peptide (the cleavage site is between ILA and AY). There were six transmembrane sequences, one in the NH₂ terminus and five in the COOH terminus. Between the first transmembrane sequence

* Note: both "isoelectric pH" and

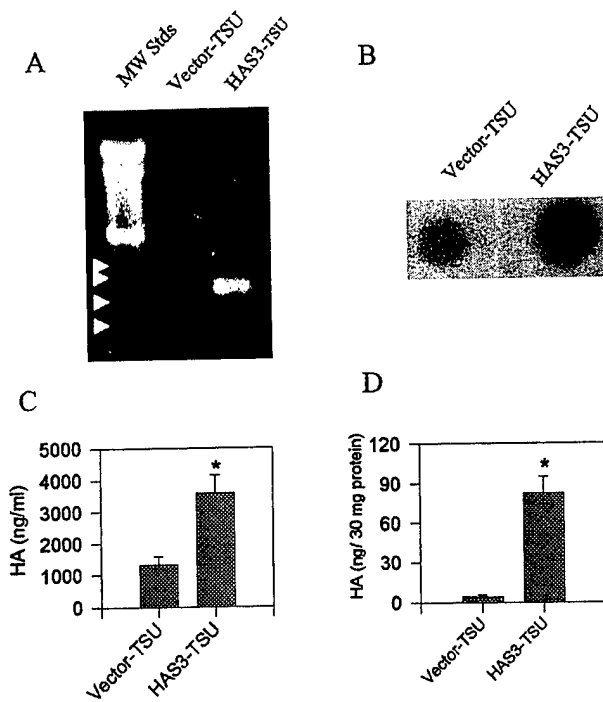


Fig. 3. Analysis of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells for HAS3 mRNA and hyaluronan production. A, for the analysis of HAS3 message, RNA was extracted from the cultured cells and subjected to RT-PCR as described in "Materials and Methods." Agarose gel electrophoresis of the reaction products showed that the HAS3-TSU cells contained a prominent band of approximately 280 bp that was absent from the vector-TSU cells. The positions of markers for 100 through 400 bp are indicated by the arrowheads in the first lane. B, for the analysis of hyaluronan production, conditioned media from the transfected cells was applied to nitrocellulose using a dot blot apparatus and stained for hyaluronan using b-HABP, followed by peroxidase-labeled streptavidin and a chemiluminescence reagent. The dots represent the hyaluronan in conditioned media of vector-TSU cells (left) and HAS3-TSU cells (right). C and D, the amount of hyaluronan in conditioned media and cell lysates as determined by an ELISA are shown respectively. The increase of hyaluronan in conditioned media and lysates from HAS3-TSU cells as compared with the vector-TSU cells was statistically significant ($P < 0.05$).

(from amino acid 43 to 65) and second transmembrane sequence (from amino acid 384 to 402), there was a stretch of 37 amino acids located outside of plasma membrane, which appeared to be the major functional region for polysaccharide synthesis. The remaining 170 amino acids in the COOH terminus (from amino acid 403 to 553) contained five transmembrane domains that can form loops spanning in and out of the plasma membrane. A potential *N*-glycosylation site was present at amino acid position 462, a glycosaminoglycan attachment site at position 464, and several phosphorylation sites for tyrosine kinase, casein kinase, protein kinase C, and cyclic AMP- and cyclic GMP-dependent protein kinases. HAS3 also contained seven hyaluronan-binding motifs of $B(X_7)B$ in which *B* is either *R* or *K*, and X_7 contains no acidic residues and at least one basic amino acid (26). Similar domains are present in other hyaluronan-binding proteins such as RHAMM, CD44, hyaluronidase, link protein, aggrecan, human GHAP, and TSG-6. Fig. 2 shows that compared with related enzymes, human HAS3 was about 53% identical to HAS1 (both human and mouse forms), 67% identical to HAS2, and 96% identical to mouse HAS3. These results are consistent with earlier studies of this and related genes (13–19).

Overexpression of Hyaluronan in TSU Cells Transfected with HAS3. To examine the role of HAS3 in tumor progression, the cloned cDNA was inserted into a mammalian expression vector (pcDNA3) under the control of a cytomegalovirus promoter and then transfected into TSU cells (human prostate cancer). To avoid complications associated with clonal variations, all of the clones (>100) that survived in 1 mg/ml of G418 were pooled and expanded for experi-

mental analysis throughout this study. The presence of HAS3 message in the transfected cells was examined by RT-PCR as described in "Materials and Methods." When analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis (Fig. 3A), the HAS3-TSU cells gave rise to a PCR product of approximately 280 bp corresponding to HAS3, whereas no such band was detected in the vector-TSU cells. In addition, no reaction product of 314 bp was apparent, indicating that the message for HAS1 was absent from these cells.

The production of hyaluronan by the transfected cells was initially examined by dot blot analysis. As showed in Fig. 3B, conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells contained a significantly greater amount of hyaluronan than that from vector-TSU cells. To quantitatively measure the hyaluronan, a competitive enzyme-linked assay was performed. Fig. 3, C and D show that both conditioned medium and lysates of HAS3-TSU cells contained greater amounts of hyaluronan as compared with those of the control vector-TSU cells. However, there was no obvious difference in the level of CD44, a cell surface receptor for hyaluronan, on the two cell types at either low or high density as determined by Western blotting (data not shown). Taken together, these results indicate that the transfection of TSU cells with cDNA for HAS3 stimulated their production of hyaluronan.

HAS3 Promotes Cell Growth at High Densities. We then compared the growth rates of the vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells. For this, the transfected cells were subcultured at similar starting densities, and at various times thereafter the cells were harvested and enumerated with a Coulter counter. Fig. 4A shows that during the first 4 days, there was no obvious difference in the proliferation rates of the vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells. However, after day 5, the HAS3-TSU cells began to proliferate at a faster rate than the vector-TSU cells. Thus, at high densities, the HAS3-transfected cells grew at a faster rate. This conclusion was also suggested by our recent finding that transfection of MDA-231 human breast cancer cells with antisense to HAS3 results in decreased expression of hyaluronan and inhibition of their growth at high densities.⁴ Together, these results indicate that HAS3 plays a role in cell proliferation at high densities.

Cultures of the vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells were then compared with respect to their patterns of growth and hyaluronan staining. As shown in Fig. 4B (top), the vector-TSU cells displayed a cobblestone appearance indicative of contact inhibition of growth with relatively little staining of pericellular hyaluronan. In contrast, the HAS3-TSU cells (Fig. 4B, bottom) appeared to have lost contact-inhibition of growth, forming numerous multilayered clusters of cells, which were associated with most of the hyaluronan staining. In addition, the HAS3-TSU cells displayed an enhanced ability to form colonies in soft agar as compared with the vector-TSU cells (Fig. 4C). Thus, at high densities, the HAS3-transfected cells grew at a faster rate, presumably because they had partially lost contact inhibition of growth.

Conditioned Medium from HAS3-TSU Stimulated the Proliferation and Migration of Endothelial Cells. Because several studies (27–29) reported that hyaluronan can modulate angiogenesis, we examined the effects of conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells on the behavior of cultured endothelial cells. When conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells was added to the medium of ABAE cells, it stimulated their proliferation by 66% as compared with that from vector-TSU cells (Fig. 5A). Furthermore, conditioned medium from the HAS3-TSU also stimulated the migration of ABAE cells through nucleopore filters by more than 300% as compared with conditioned medium from control cells (Fig. 5B). These results further suggest that

⁴ Unpublished data.

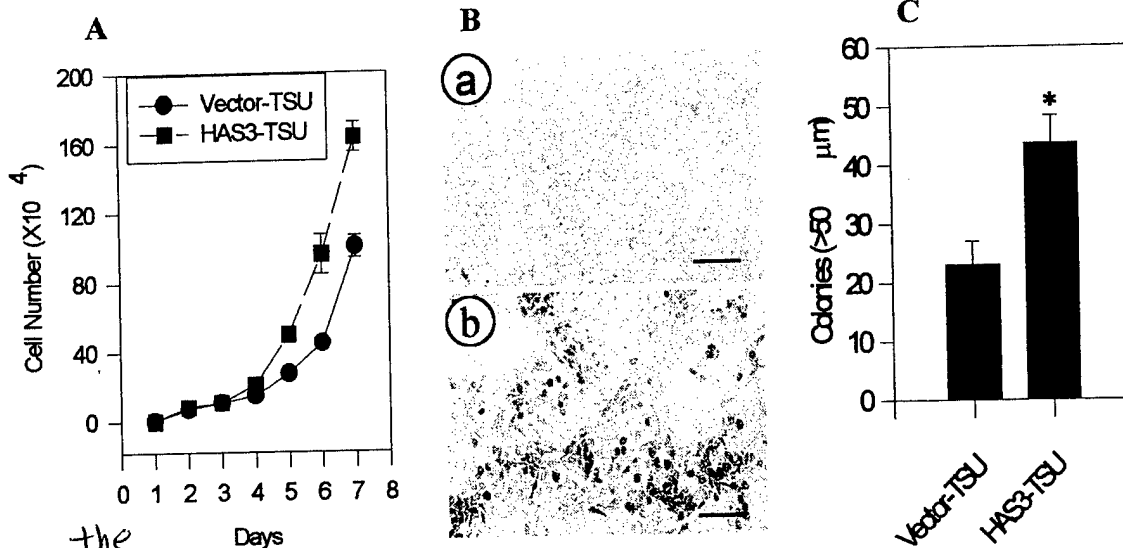


Fig. 4. *In vitro* growth pattern of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells. A, cell growth curves for the transfected TSU cells are shown. The cells were plated in 24-well dishes, and the cell number was determined at indicated times. Although the rate of cell growth was the same at low densities, at higher densities, the HAS3-TSU cells grew faster than the vector-TSU cells. Three independent experiments yielded similar results. B, transfected cells at high density were stained for hyaluronan. The transfected cells were grown to confluence, briefly fixed in formaldehyde, and stained for hyaluronan with b-HABP, followed by peroxidase-labeled streptavidin and finally a substrate for peroxidase that gives a red color. The fixed vector-TSU cells (part a) formed a confluent monolayer with little hyaluronan staining, whereas the HAS3-TSU cells (part b) formed numerous multilayered clusters that stain for hyaluronan (bar, 100 μm). C, anchorage-independent growth of the transfected cells is shown. Equal numbers of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells were cultured in soft agar for 2 weeks, and the number of colonies were counted with Omnicon Image Analysis system. The HAS3-TSU cells formed a greater number of colonies larger than 50 μm than did the vector-TSU cells (*, $P < 0.05$). This experiment was performed in triplicate.

the hyaluronan produced by HAS3-TSU cells could exert a stimulatory effect on endothelial cells.

The Growth of Transfected Cells on the Chicken Chorioallantoic Membrane. To determine whether the increased growth rate of HAS3-TSU cells *in vitro* also occurred *in vivo*, we examined their growth on the chorioallantoic membranes of chicken eggs. In this experiment, equal number of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells were placed on the chorioallantoic membranes of 10-day-old chicken embryos and allowed to grow for 5 days. The xenografts showed a striking divergence in morphology. The vector-TSU cells formed rounded, nodular xenografts that grew out of the membrane surface, with necrotic tissue in the center, whereas the HAS3-TSU cells gave rise to xenografts with a dispersed morphology within the membrane and without any obvious signs of necrosis. As shown in Fig. 6, A and B, the HAS3-TSU xenografts were significantly larger than those of the vector-TSU cells. Histological examination of the xenografts revealed that, whereas the vector-TSU cells were compact, the HAS3-TSU cells were more dispersed with increased intercellular spaces (data not shown). These results suggested that overexpression of hyaluronan enhanced the tumor growth on the chorioallantoic membrane system.

HAS3 Promotes the Primary Growth of TSU Cells but Not Metastasis in Nude Mice. The *in vivo* growth characteristics of these cells were further examined by injecting them s.c. into nude mice. After 2 weeks, the xenografts formed by HAS3-TSU cells grew at a faster rate and appeared to be more vascularized than the control cells. After 3 weeks of growth, the HAS-3 xenografts were three times larger than those formed by the vector-TSU cells (Fig. 7, A and B), suggesting that HAS3 promotes the growth of TSU tumor cells in mice. These results are consistent with those obtained from the chicken chorioallantoic membrane system.

However, when transfected cells were injected into the tail veins of nude mice (five mice/group), no lung metastases were detected with either cell type. Thus, the overexpression of hyaluronan by itself is not sufficient to induce metastatic behavior in TSU cells.

Increased Extracellular Hyaluronan and Angiogenesis in HAS3-TSU Xenografts. The xenografts from nude mice were processed for histology, and the resulting sections were stained for hyaluronan (Fig. 8A). Although the xenografts varied from region to region, in general, the cells in the vector-TSU xenografts were relatively homogeneous and compact, and most of the hyaluronan appeared to be present in the cytoplasm of the cells (Fig. 8A). In contrast, the HAS3-TSU cells formed small clusters or nests of cells that were surrounded by a matrix rich in hyaluronan (Fig. 8A). Such structures were not observed in the control-TSU xenografts.

The extent of angiogenesis in these xenografts was examined by

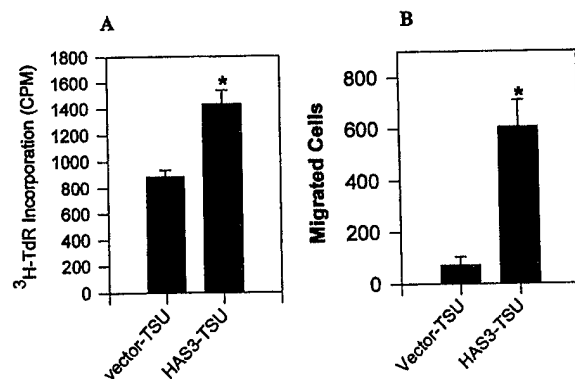


Fig. 5. Effect of conditioned media from vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells on endothelial cells. A, effects of conditioned media on the proliferation of endothelial cells are demonstrated. ABAE cells were cultured for 36 h in the presence of conditioned media from either vector-TSU or HAS3-TSU cells, pulsed with [³H]thymidine for 8 h, harvested, and processed for incorporated radioactivity. The conditioned media from HAS3-TSU cells stimulated the ABAE cells to a greater extent than that from vector-TSU cells. B, effects of conditioned media on the migration of endothelial cells is shown. Aliquots containing 5×10^3 ABAE cells were added to bottom wells of a 48-well Boyden chamber, covered with a nucleopore membrane, and then treated with 50 μl of conditioned medium for 2 h. The membrane was stained with Hema 3 and placed on a slide, and the migrated cells were counted in 10 random fields. Conditioned medium from HAS3-TSU cells significantly increased the migration of the endothelial cells as compared with that from the vector-TSU cells ($P < 0.05$).

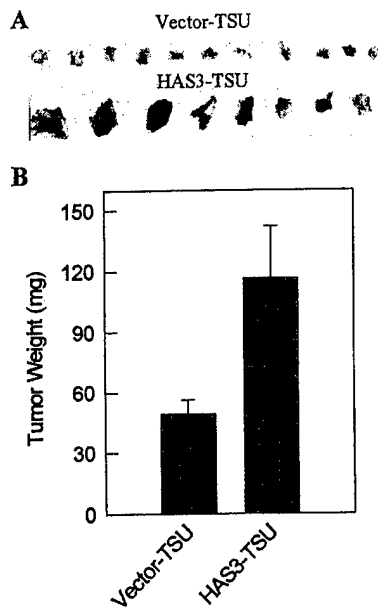


Fig. 6. Growth of transfected TSU cells on the chicken chorioallantoic membrane. Samples of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU cells (2×10^6 cells) were placed on the chorioallantoic membranes of 10-day-old chicken embryos (15 eggs/group), incubated at 37°C for 5 days, and then photographed. A, the xenografts of vector-TSU cells (top row) and HAS3-TSU cells (bottom row) from the chorioallantoic membrane are shown. The vector-TSU xenografts formed compact nodules, whereas the HAS3-TSU xenografts were more spread out and larger. B, the weights of the HAS3-TSU xenografts were significantly greater than that of the vector-TSU cells ($P < 0.05$).

staining for mouse endothelial cells using antibodies to CD31. Fig. 8B shows that there was strong positive staining in HAS3-TSU xenografts as compared with the control vector-TSU xenografts. The number of vessels in 10–15 random fields was significantly higher in the HAS3-TSU xenografts than in the control xenografts (Fig. 8C). This suggests that increased levels of hyaluronan can stimulate angiogenesis in mice, and this may, in part, account for the faster growth rate of tumors formed by HAS3-TSU cells.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have characterized human HAS3 with regard to both its structure and its function in tumor progression. On the basis of its deduced amino acid sequence, HAS3 shares significant homology with HAS1 and HAS2, containing a signal peptide as well as six transmembrane regions strongly suggesting that it is associated with the plasma membrane. Its enzymatic activity was demonstrated by the fact that TSU cells transfected with expression vectors for HAS3 produced larger amounts of hyaluronan as determined by histochemical staining, dot blot analysis, and quantitative ELISA. These findings are consistent with earlier studies of HAS proteins (12–19).

This study also suggested that stimulation of hyaluronan synthesis in TSU cells by transfecting them with HAS3 expression vectors enhanced their growth both in chicken embryos and in nude mice. This enhanced tumor growth appeared to be attributable to two distinct mechanisms. The first involved a direct effect on the tumor cells themselves, as indicated by the fact that in tissue culture, HAS3-transfected cells grew at a faster rate at high density. The second mechanism promoting tumor growth rate resulted from an increase in vascularization, as reflected by the greater density of blood vessels in xenografts from nude mice. Together, these two factors contribute to the increased tumor growth rate.

At present, we believe that the effects of HAS3 transfection on TSU cell phenotype are a direct consequence of increased hyaluronan

synthesis. Along these lines, it is important to note that HAS3 overexpression increases the production of both secreted and cell-associated hyaluronan. These two pools of hyaluronan may have different effects on cell behavior. This was suggested by preliminary experiments in which we found that the addition of high molecular weight hyaluronan to cultures of vector-TSU or HAS3-TSU cells had no obvious effect on their growth rates (data not shown). We believe that under these specific conditions, free hyaluronan of high molecular weight did not affect the behavior of these cells. Rather, we believe that it was the cell-associated fraction of hyaluronan induced by HAS3 that played a more important role in stimulating cell growth. However, we cannot eliminate the possibility that hyaluronan of the appropriate size and concentration may indeed influence the behavior of TSU cells, similar to the effects that it has on endothelial cells (27, 28). It is also possible that HAS3 may have effects on the TSU cells independent of its function to promote hyaluronan synthesis; *e.g.*, HAS3 could influence the interaction of the plasma membrane with elements of the cytoskeleton and thereby alter cell behavior.

The hyaluronan on the surface of cultured cells can form a pericellular coat that can be directly visualized by its ability to exclude small particles such as erythrocytes (30). In the case of rat fibrosarcoma cells, this coat is composed of small, microvilli-like projections that extend out from the surface of the cells to which the hyaluronan is attached (31). This pericellular coat could stimulate the growth of cells by several different mechanisms. One possible mechanism is that it disrupts intercellular junctions and thereby allows the cells to detach from the substrate so that they can divide and occupy new space (32–34). This would allow cells to overcome contact inhibition of growth that is characteristic of TSU cells and allow them to form multilayers at high-density cultures as we have observed. Another possibility is that the hyaluronan interacts with receptors on the surfaces of cells such as CD44 or RHAMM to influence their migratory and proliferative behavior (35, 36).

Extracellular hyaluronan can also stimulate cell proliferation by increasing the flow of nutrients. Indeed, the extracellular hyaluronan apparent in xenografts of HAS3-TSU cells in nude mice could serve

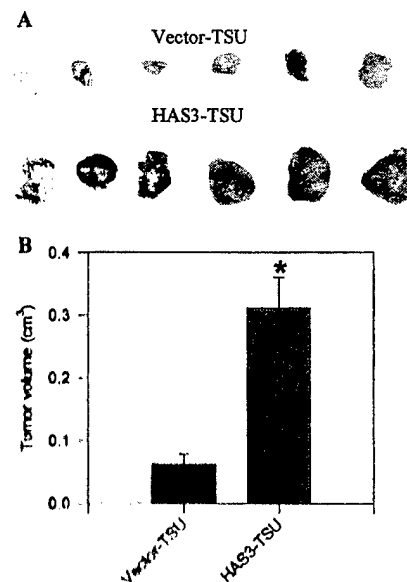
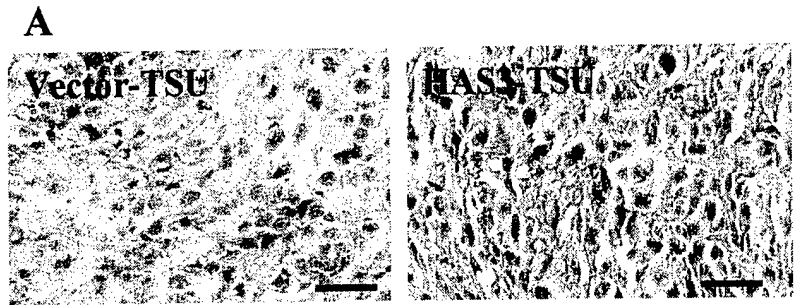
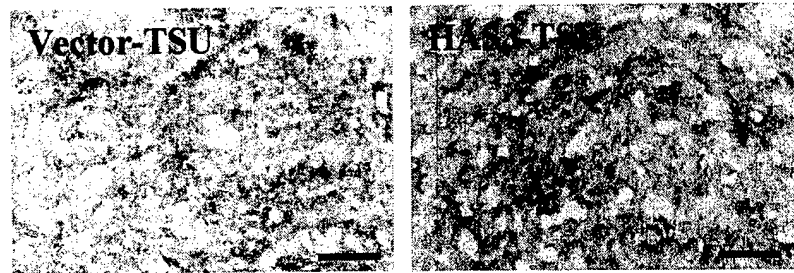


Fig. 7. Xenografts formed by transfected TSU cells in nude mice. A, the appearance of xenografts formed in nude mice is shown. Mice received injections of 2×10^6 vector-TSU cells (top) or HAS3-TSU cells (bottom), and the xenografts were harvested 21 days later. The HAS3-TSU xenografts were larger than those of the vector-TSU cells. B, the weights of the HAS3-TSU xenografts were significantly greater than that of the vector-TSU ($P < 0.05$).



B



C

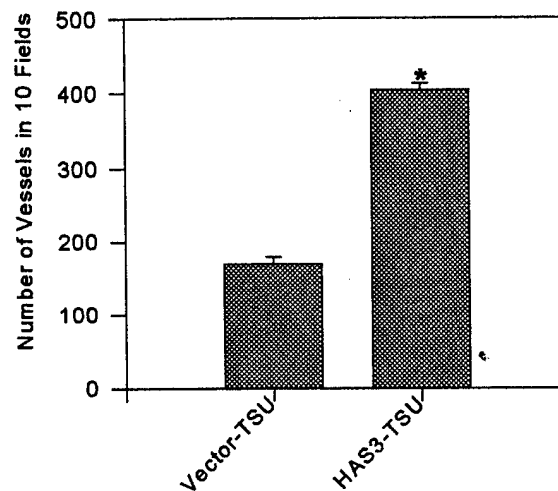


Fig. 8. Staining of xenografts for hyaluronan and endothelial cells. A, paraffin sections of vector-TSU and HAS3-TSU xenografts from nude mice were stained for hyaluronan (red) and counter-stained with hematoxylin (blue). A representative section of a vector-TSU xenograft shows that most of the hyaluronan staining was associated with the cytoplasm of the cells, whereas in a similar section from a HAS3-TSU xenograft, the cells were present in small clusters, surrounded by a stroma rich in hyaluronan. Although the microscopic morphology of the xenografts varied from region to region, the hyaluronan-rich stroma was prevalent in the HAS3-TSU xenografts and absent from the vector-TSU xenografts. Bar, 50 μ m. B, cryostat sections of the xenografts were stained for endothelial cells using an antibody against mouse CD31. Representative fields show that xenografts formed from HAS3-TSU cells have a higher concentration of endothelial cells than those from vector-TSU cells. Bar, 100 μ m. C, the number of blood vessels in 10 random fields from three samples of each group are shown. The HAS3-TSU xenografts had a significantly higher concentration of blood vessels than that of the vector-TSU cells ($P < 0.05$).

as conduits through which nutrients diffuse to support cells located some distance from the blood supply and thus facilitate their growth. In the xenografts of vector-TSU cells that lacked these hyaluronan rich spaces, the tumor cells formed a continuous mass and were more susceptible to necrosis. Along these lines, extracellular hyaluronan is prominent in the lower regions of most, if not all, stratified epithelium, where it is believed to maintain spaces so that nutrients can diffuse to the more superficial epithelial cells (37, 38).

Hyaluronan also appeared to promote vascularization that is clearly important in regulating tumor growth (39, 40). This was indicated by our observation that xenografts of HAS3-TSU cells formed in nude mice had a greater density of blood vessels than did control xenografts. Part of this increased vascularization may be attributable to the pericellular spaces generated by the hyaluronan that provides space that facilitates the invasion of endothelial cells. In addition, the hyaluronan itself can stimulate the migration of endothelial cells. This was also indirectly suggested by experiments showing that conditioned media from the HAS3-transfected cells stimulated the growth and migration of cultured endothelial cells. This is consistent with the

earlier studies of West *et al.* (27, 28) who have shown that oligosaccharide fragments of hyaluronan stimulated the formation of new blood vessels in the chorioallantoic membrane of chicken embryos.

Although the results of this study suggest that overexpression of HAS3 in TSU prostate cancer cells promotes their tumorigenicity, there are some aspects that appear to contradict the findings of other studies; *e.g.*, although we found that TSU transfectants grew faster in culture, Kosaki *et al.* (20) found no such increase in the growth of HT1080 cells transfected with HAS2 under anchorage-dependent conditions, although these cells did form larger colonies in suspension culture. We believe that this difference may be attributable in part to the different target cells that were used in these studies. The TSU cells used as targets in this study are of epithelial origin, whereas HT1080 cells are derived from a fibrosarcoma of connective tissue cells. This could also account for the differences seen with regard to growth behavior and the production of hyaluronan in the connective tissue and their ability to stimulate angiogenesis. Alternatively, the differences could be attributed to the characteristics of the particular HASs that were used in these studies, because they differ with respect to

both their synthetic activity as well as the size of the hyaluronan that they produce (16–18).

Another apparent discrepancy was our observation that transfection of TSU cells with HAS3 did not appear to stimulate their ability to form lung metastases in nude mice. In contrast, we had reported previously (3) that the levels of hyaluronan on the surface of B16 cells were directly correlated with their metastatic behavior. Similarly, Itano *et al.* (21) found that transfection of FM3A with HAS1 enhanced their metastatic properties. Again, we believe that these divergent results were attributable to the different cell types that were used as targets for transfection. In the case of B16 and ~~FM3A~~, these cell lines originally possessed the ability to undergo metastasis, and stimulation of hyaluronan synthesis in these cells enhanced this innate property. In contrast, TSU cells appeared to lack this ability (at least in nude mice), and increased hyaluronan synthesis, by itself, is not sufficient to promote metastatic properties. Clearly, the process of metastasis is a complex phenomenon involving the collaboration of many molecules. Although the production of hyaluronan is one of the factors, it is not sufficient for tumor metastasis in the case of TSU cells.

In conclusion, the results of this study indicate that HAS3 expression plays a role in tumor progression and are consistent with earlier studies demonstrating a correlation between hyaluronan levels and tumorigenicity. Furthermore, the hyaluronan may be acting through several different mechanisms, including: (a) a direct effect on the growth of the tumor cells themselves; (b) the formation of extracellular conduits through which nutrients can flow; and (c) the stimulation of blood vessel growth. However, these effects depend upon the particular cell type and the specific environment. Given the complexity of the effects of hyaluronan, it may be difficult to predict exactly how it will influence the behavior of tumor cells. In the case of TSU cells, hyaluronan may be more of a facilitator of tumor growth rather than an instigator of metastasis.

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